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ABSTRACT

The unit provides an historical overview of black Americans' struggle for civil rights and explores current legislation and court decisions about civil rights. Among its objectives are to view the black American struggle for equality in the context of American history, highlight the major civil rights organizations in the black American struggle, and note possible future directions of the civil rights movement. One major section, written in narrative style, traces the struggle for civil rights from Colonial times through the Civil War, abolition of slavery, World Wars I and II, court decisions in the 1950s, the Black Muslim movement, and Civil Rights Acts of 1957, 1964, and 1968. Another major section discusses court decisions concerning busing and racial integration in schools, availability of social services, discrimination in admission to institutions of higher education, and union membership. Analysis of the opinions of several contemporary writers shows that the courts have promoted greater equality of opportunity but that much more remains to be accomplished. Concluding sections present 38 activities and questions based on the previous sections, a list of 23 films, and a selected bibliography of over 50 books and articles. (AV)

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BLACK PEOPLE IN AMERICA: A TEACHING-LEARNING UNIT

SO 011 579

CURRICULUM RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT CENTER

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY ● TERRE HAUTE

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PROLOGUE

No longer is the Black American invisible. Only a few short years ago *Ebony* editorialized:

> The very real hope for the future lies in the ability of the white man to finally see the Negro, not as a mass of new or old stereotypes, but as a group of individuals with different abilities, different tastes and different backgrounds who have welded into a fairly unified and militant minority because of oppression from a dominant group of whites.[1]

In that same year James Baldwin, novelist and essayist had written:

> When I was going to school, I began to be bugged by the teaching of American history, because it seemed that the history had been taught without cognizance of my presence.[2]

These are notions of only a decade and a half ago. No longer is the Black American little noted or long remembered. Finally, White America has become sensitive to approximately eleven percent of America's populace.

But this is only a beginning. Prejudice does something to the victims, but it also does something to the bigots. The past remains and will not soon go away. The scar tissue of old hurts, large and small, is in the memory and mind of the persecuted. And the old prejudices are rationalized, take on new sophisticated forms, and are expressed in different language.

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[1]"For The Last Time," *Ebony*, June, 1964, p. 186.

[2]"Desegregated History," *Time*, 27 March 1964, p. 59.

OBJECTIVES

1. To view the Black American struggle for equality in the context of American history.

2. To illustrate the processes by which the American Black was able to obtain a greater degree of freedom.

3. To highlight the major civil rights organizations in the Black American struggle.

4. To accentuate the important role the courts played in the civil rights struggle.

5. To outline the impact of legislation, focusing on major acts, in the civil rights struggle.

6. To note the current status and possible future directions of the civil rights movement by interpretation of court decisions and contemporary writers.

BLACK PEOPLE IN AMERICA

THE STRUGGLE FOR CIVIL RIGHTS

Eighty-seven years after the Declaration of Independence the black Americans received their own declaration of independence in the form of the Emancipation Proclamation. But just because the piece of paper that Lincoln put into effect on January 1, 1863 said the black people were free didn't necessarily make it a reality. One hundred years later, on August 28, a crowd of 200,000 blacks and whites gathered in Washington, D.C., in a "living petition" to try again to gain the freedom and equality that they supposedly had received so many years before.

It is rather ironic that Americans wanted so much to be free from British rule that they included in their statement of independence "that all men are created equal," but this equality of all men did not include some men, namely, the blacks. Slavery was legal, and the Black American was thought of as nothing more than another piece of livestock to be owned or sold.

It had not been generally recognized, until recently, that American history books contained ample information about the discovery, settlement, and growth of the United States, but there was no mention of the part that black people played in these activities, or that black men were even present. Blacks helped blaze trails, served as scouts, and were valuable aides to many of the early explorers. Pedro Alonso Nino was a member of Christopher Columbus's crew. Balboa had blacks in his expedition when the Pacific Ocean was discovered. The New Mexico and Arizona expedition led by Cabeza de Vaca was accompanied by a black named Estevanico. Other blacks accompanied Cortez, Pizarro, Menendez and De Soto.

By the time of the Revolutionary War, there were almost 700,000 blacks in the American colonies. Approximately 5,000 of them served in the Revolutionary War, and the first American patriot killed in the Boston Massacre was Crispus Attucks, a runaway slave. More than 210,000 blacks fought in the Union Army and Navy during the Civil War, and twenty of them won Congressional Medals of Honor.[1]

The United States recently celebrated its 200th birthday and widely acclaimed its accomplishments during those two hundred years. Blacks have also been an integral part of the history of the United States, but their contributions had been unnoticed or hidden for most of those two hundred years. It has only been in the last two or three decades that accomplishments of blacks have been brought to the attention of most

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[1]Russell L. Hamm, "Civil Rights," unpublished paper, 1964.

Americans, and then only because of the pressures of demonstrations, some violent, that showed that blacks were finally unwilling to accept the degrading treatment that they were facing in daily life.

Outstanding contributions by blacks have been made in many different areas of American life in recent years. Can you imagine music without such performers as Marion Anderson, Lena Horne, Mahalia Jackson, Leontyne Price, Harry Belafonte, to name only a few? The unique contributions in sports include those of Jackie Robinson, Joe Louis, Willie Mays, Rafer Johnson, Jesse Owens, Althea Gibson, Henry Aaron, Julius Erving, Muhammed Ali, and a multitude of other great black athletes. There are black officials in the United States armed services (Benjamin O. Davis, general; Samuel L. Gravely, Jr., commander) and astronauts (Edward J. Dwight, Jr., Robert H. Lawrence). There have been scientists (Charles R. Drew, Percy Julian, Theodore Lawless), lawyers, legislators, and politicians (Blanche K. Bruce, Robert C. Weaver, Ralph Bunche, Thurgood Marshall, Edward Brooke, Patricia Harris, William Hastie, Damon Keith), educators (Robert R. Moton, William T. B. Williams, Mary McLeod Bethune, Wilson C. Riles), religious and civil rights leaders (Martin Luther King, Jr., Leon H. Sullivan, Medgar Evers, Roy Wilkins), literature (Langston Hughes, Richard Wright)--in every walk of life we find blacks who have influenced American values, history, and life styles.

Americans find it hard to accept the criticism leveled at them from abroad--we profess to believe that "all men are created equal," but what we say and what we do seem to be two totally different things. Americans, seemingly, have had a blind spot in their vision when viewing their history and seeing in it the most perfect form of government, even when legal and justice systems denied equal opportunity to eleven percent of the population. This blind spot was jarred and has slowly started to disappear since the mid-1960s.

The Watts riot was not the beginning of the struggle for equality. The march on Washington was not the beginning. Starting with the slave trade and continuing to the present day, black Americans have fought to gain the rights guaranteed to them by the United States Constitution.

If there is no struggle, there is no progress. Those who profess to favor freedom, and yet deprecate agitation, are men who want crops without plowing up the ground. They want the ocean without the awful roar of its many waters.

Frederick Douglass

The most famous black revolt before The Civil War was led by Nat Turner, a slave preacher, but even though sixty whites were killed, more than one hundred blacks were struck down, and Turner was hanged. The revolt did not advance the black man's opportunities to live in freedom. Sojourner Truth, a freed slave, joined the abolitionist movement, and made many public speeches in New England and the West. Frederick Douglass, a fugitive slave who openly lectured against slavery, began publishing an abolitionist newspaper in 1847. White abolitionist John Brown invaded the South to free the slaves, but was caught and hanged for treason. There was almost daily resistance among the slaves and from the abolitionists, but freedom and equality were to be much longer in coming.

Beginning in the mid-nineteenth century free black Americans began turning to the courts in their efforts to gain civil rights. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts denied, in 1849, that school segregation violated the state constitution's guarantee of equality. In 1857, the United States Supreme Court handed down the "Dred Scott" decision, which proclaimed, in essence, that the Constitution did not apply to blacks. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 placed a $1,000 fine on anyone aiding a fugitive slave, and this led to the migration of blacks into Canada. The Underground Railroad was indeed busy during this period of history.

When Abraham Lincoln was elected to the presidency in 1860, the southern states left the union under the doctrine of states' rights. The Civil War began the following year. In 1862, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, to become effective January 1, 1863, which declared that persons held as slaves would be free. Shortly before the end of the Civil War, the Freedman's Bureau was created by Congress to help the former slaves make the transition from slavery to freedom.

The Thirteenth Amendment was ratified on December 18, 1865. The abolishment of slavery and involuntary servitude was now extended to the entire country, but the following years found the re-establishment of white supremacy through acts of violence and court decisions which left the blacks again in the hands of the southern states.

At the root of the American Negro problem is the necessity of the American white man to find a way of living with the Negro in order to be able to live with himself.

James Baldwin

From 1875 until 1957 Congress did not enact a single law to protect or promote the civil and legal status of black Americans.[2] During the late 1800s and early 1900s there was extreme racism, increased segregation; blacks were barred from serving on juries, only menial tasks were available for employment, and lynchings were widespread. It was during this period that Booker T. Washington recommended his philosophy of accommodation, and stressed self-improvement through education and training.

Washington's philosophy of accommodation was opposed by W. E. B. Du Bois, who became the first black to receive a Ph. D. degree from Harvard University. Du Bois, who believed that blacks should fight for their rights, in 1910 became an officer of the newly formed National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. The NAACP used the courts to end lynching, police brutality, violence, and gained voting rights for the black, justice in the courts, and it helped to achieve the great 1954 triumph. Instrumental in organizing the NAACP were such people as John Dewey and Jane Addams.

A more conservative civil rights group was the National Urban League, also founded in 1910. It stressed community action, better jobs for blacks in industry, an improved standard of living, better schools, neighborhood playgrounds, and good will between the races as an avenue for more opportunities for the disadvantaged black.

During the World War I years, southern blacks migrated north to the cities where there were increased opportunities for work, mainly in the factories. Because of this mass migration, many other problems came into being. Lack of housing led to overcrowding, high rents, and unsanitary living conditions in any type of dilapidated, abandoned structures. The crime rate soared. These things led to fear and strong anti-black feelings on the part of whites. When World War I ended and the soldiers came home, the black ones found poor living conditions, lack of jobs, and denial of the democracy that they had fought for. Riots erupted. In the south the Ku Klux Klan became active, and violent terrorism was common.

Shortly after the war, the beginnings of the Great Depression were felt, especially in the southern cotton-growing states. The crops failed; and when this occurred, the small farmers, farm workers, and share-croppers also failed, and living conditions grew worse. More blacks moved north into already overcrowded cities.

The whites competed for the menial labor jobs which had been left to blacks until this depressed time, and the blacks had to seek help from the federal relief programs. The federal programs, Works Progress Administration (WPA), Public Works Administration (PWA), Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and others, helped the blacks to a small degree, but discrimination was ever-present. President Roosevelt's New Deal improved elementary education, which was a very real necessity for the black. Eleanor Roosevelt worked hard in the intervention and support for minority group justice.

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[2]Richard Bardolph, *The Civil Rights Record* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1970), p. 99.

By the end of the 1930s, new employment opportunities in industry and in the professions began to open, and some of the labor unions lowered their racial barriers. The equalization of educational opportunity was progressing, and President Roosevelt appointed a number of blacks as advisors in various departments of the government.

The 1940s and 1950s were a turning point in history. This turning point was not just one act or happening. With World War II had come improved mechanization and increased urbanization, leading to more job opportunities and better economic conditions and education. The war years had brought more southern blacks to the urban north where they found jobs, and were able to become involved in political activity. They found that public pressure could be used as a weapon if they organized into unified groups. During these years the blacks won several legal battles which encouraged them in their long, hard fought battle for freedom and equality. The anthropological findings that the black race really was not inferior, as had been generally believed, led to a better self-concept. Joe Louis especially brought pride to the black race by winning a world championship title.

The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) was founded in 1942 in Chicago, and used nonviolent actions to oppose racial segregation. In the 1960s CORE initiated and sponsored, under the leadership of Bayard Rustin, the "freedom rides" and "sit-ins" in an effort to overcome segregation in the south.

Other trends in these decades included the growth of the number of blacks in the labor unions, the occurrence of protest marches and rallies, the government decree of non-discrimination in companies that were awarded government sub-contracts, the acquisition of voting rights, and President Truman's executive order desegregating the armed forces. The courts were finding that the black was being discriminated against, and in 1948, ordered the University of Texas to admit a black student, which helped pave the way for the landmark *Brown* decision in 1954. Mary Ellison sums it up as "the culmination of a slowly widening stream of litigation favorable to integrative equality that had begun to flow earlier in the century."[3]

The 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (Kansas) decision struck down the separate-but-equal doctrine that had been in effect since the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision. For sixty years the separate-but-equal doctrine, which in reality meant separate-but-unequal treatment for the blacks, had been in effect. This marked the end of one period and the beginning of another.

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[3]Mary Ellison, *The Black Experience: American Blacks Since 1865* (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1974), p. 182.

The next era in the struggle for civil rights was not a calm period for discrimination was still widely practiced. Once again riots and fear ran rampant. The courts and legislatures became actively involved, and in 1955, the Supreme Court ordered that the integration of blacks and whites in public schools should be carried out "with all deliberate speed."

> **The Negro is now discussed on every hand. The platform, the pulpit, the press, and the legislative hall regard him, and struggle with him, as a great and difficult problem, one that requires almost divine wisdom to solve. Men are praying over it. It is always a dangerous symptom when men pray to know what is their duty.**
>
> **Frederick Douglass**

The cry for equality spread from education to the social and political arenas as well, and blacks became impatient with the slow progress being made. They turned to direct action. In Montgomery, Alabama, Martin Luther King, Jr., led a boycott against a local bus company that practiced segregation. The Southern Christian Leadership Conference, which King founded and led, grew out of this successful bus boycott in 1956. This local success led to the mass movements that became commonplace under the leadership of King. The bus boycott paved the way for the issuance of a federal court injunction outlawing segregation, and was later followed by the Supreme Court ruling that the local statute, requiring segregation on buses, was unconstitutional. The struggle in Birmingham, Alabama, where more than 3,300 blacks were jailed in 1963, helped King gain in stature. Sit-ins, stand-ins, pray-ins, and mass demonstrations erupted throughout the United States. Blacks demanded better job opportunities and an end to *de facto* school segregation. The dominant theme of Dr. King's appeal was "strength through love," and in 1964 he was the recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize.

The courts were flooded with litigation. The boycotts and mass demonstrations continued throughout the following years. Partial integration took place in an orderly manner in many schools, but some incidents were not orderly and they gained national attention. The Arkansas National Guard was ordered, by the governor, to surround Central High School in Little Rock in 1957, to prevent black students from entering. President Eisenhower sent federal troops to the school in order to accomplish integration. The Arkansas General Assembly got into the act by authorizing the governor to close the schools, if necessary, to prevent integration. On September 13, 1958, all of Little Rock's senior high schools were closed for the 1958-59 school year.[4] In 1962,

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[4]Jerry Robbins and Thomas A. Teeter, "The Phoenix of Little Rock: Central High 20 Years After Forced Desegregation," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 59 (October, 1977), 112-115.

Governor Barnett of Mississippi tried to keep James Meredith from entering the University of Mississippi, and again federal troops were sent to intervene. Governor Wallace of Alabama tried the same thing in 1963. The integration issue was resisted so strongly by some whites, and was just as strongly desired by blacks, that the clashes between them often led to death.

The young blacks were becoming impatient with the slowness of progress and they became more militant in the struggle for their civil rights. The Student's Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), formed in 1960 was led by the fiery young leader, Stokely Carmichael, and later by H. Rap Brown. Under Carmichael's leadership, the organization abandoned nonviolence and, instead, moved toward total revolution. If the blacks weren't given full justice, then cities should be burned and whites should be shot. This new radical movement was expressed by Carmichael, Brown, Eldridge Cleaver, and James Forman. The Black Panther Party emerged and became more of a Marxist-Communist group that also preached violent revolution to bring about civil rights changes in society.

> **I don't believe in passive resistance. Every Negro ought to have a weapon in his house--a rifle or shot gun. Any Negro who is attacked should fight back; if necessary he should be prepared to die like a man, like Patrick Henry. Any Negro leader must be prepared--and must tell the people who are following him to prepare--to go either to jail, the hospital, or the cemetery. But not without a fight, not without a reason. Malcolm X**

The Black Muslim group, formed in 1930, was not generally considered to be a part of the civil rights movement. Malcolm X took over as the leading spokesman for the Black Muslims, and in 1964 formed his own organization, The Organization of Afro-American Unity (OAAU). He preached violence and racial hatred, and advocated complete segregation, either as a separate state in the south or through mass migration to Africa. The riots in Harlem and Rochester were an indication of his admiring public. He later changed his philosophy to the oness of races, but continued his belief in force if other appeals failed. Malcolm X was assassinated in 1965.

The Civil Rights Act of 1957 was the first twentieth century legislative action taken by the federal government to begin breaking the segregation barriers. Again in 1960, legislative action was forthcoming. These Civil Rights Acts dealt largely with voting rights, but also established the Commission on Civil Rights that was to collect data, publish its findings, and recommend actions to be taken in legislative and administrative decisions. The publications of the Commission helped shape the future action and policies of the United States.

The 1960s saw much activity in the area of civil rights. Although few of the racial barriers had been broken it had taken too many years, and many blacks became impatient with the gradualism and tokenism displayed by the white citizens of the United States. The peaceful demonstrations, freedom rides, sit-ins, stand-ins, pray-ins, and boycotts turned into violence by both blacks and whites. The Ku Klux Klan again became active in violence against the blacks. Riots, bombings, shootings, and murder were the order of the day during the mid-1960s. Medgar Evers was murdered in front of his home, freedom riders were mutilated and shot, but the guilty persons were freed by all-white juries, or were never caught because of little police effort. The dynamite bombing of a church in Birmingham, Alabama, where four black girls were killed in 1963 was left unsolved until November of 1977. It was partially because of the mass media and better communication that the citizens of the United States finally began to understand the real plight of the black people in America, and attitudes began changing more rapidly.

President Kennedy urged Congress to pass other civil rights legislation during his administration. The violence in the United States, including the assassination of John F. Kennedy, led to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This act made it illegal to exclude blacks from restaurants, hotels, theatres, schools, employment, voting, unions, and denied federal funds to any agency practicing segregation.

A summary of selected portions of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 follows:

TITLE I: VOTING. The purpose of this section is to provide more effective enforcement of the right to vote in presidential and congressional elections without regard to race or color. It requires that the same standards be applied to all who seek to register and vote; voting cannot be denied because of minor mistakes, only written literacy tests may be used for voter qualification with answers available when requested, and the Attorney General or the voter may request a three-judge Federal court to hear the case so that these suits can be speeded to conclusion.

TITLE II: PUBLIC ACCOMMODATIONS. Forbids discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, or national origin in public places such as: hotels and motels, restaurants, lunch counters, movie houses, gasoline stations, theatres, stadiums, or for any other services that are offered within the public establishments if these affect interstate commerce, or if state or local laws require segregation. If there are no state or local laws requiring segregation, this act does not cover barber shops beauty shops and other services unless they are located in a hotel and offer these services to guests. Places that are owned and operated as private clubs are exempt unless they offer their facilities to patrons of a hotel or other such businesses.

No person can intimidate, threaten, or coerce another for the purpose of interfering with the rights offered by this act, which may be enforced by individual law suits or by the Attorney General filing suit.

TITLE III: PUBLIC FACILITIES. Authorizes the Attorney General to bring suit to compel desegregation of publicly owned or operated facilities whenever he receives a written complaint that he feels merits action.

TITLE IV: PUBLIC EDUCATION. The United States Office of Education is authorized to conduct a national survey to determine the availability of equal educational opportunity, to provide technical assistance to help carry out school desegregation, to assist in training teachers to deal with desegregation problems, to make grants for inservice specialists, and it authorizes the Attorney General to file school desegregation suits after receiving written complaints by a pupil or parent who is unable to bring action.

TITLE VI: FEDERALLY ASSISTED PROGRAMS. Every Federal agency that provides financial assistance through grants, loans, or contracts must work to eliminate discrimination on the grounds of race, color, or national origin, and is authorized to cut off the distribution of such funds when discrimination is in evidence.

TITLE VII: EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY. Employers, labor unions, and employment agencies employing more than 25 people are required to treat all persons equally without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. This title establishes an Equal Employment Opportunity Commission that is authorized to settle valid complaints by conciliation and persuasion and through court action. Not covered by this title are public employers, private clubs, and religious educational institutions where religion is a qualification for employment.

Indeed, it is a commonplace of history that revolutions (and the Negro protest movement resembles a revolution in many ways) stem from hope, not despair; from Progress, not stalemate. And the nearer to triumph the revolutionaries get, the tougher they usually become.

Charles E. Silberman

In 1965, Martin Luther King and Ralph Abernathy were jailed for leading protest marches in Alabama, black marchers were murdered, and a white minister, James Reeb, died from a beating he received while taking part in the freedom march. Following on the heels of this violence came the enactment of the Voting Rights Act of 1965, which many feel came about because of anger over the official brutality and beatings suffered by voter-registration workers and demonstrators.

The highlights of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 can be summarized as follows: This act abolishes any test or device used as a prerequisite for registration or voting; it also authorizes the Attorney General to bring suit against the states requiring the payment of poll taxes and to

determine if poll taxes are unconstitutional; an inability to speak English is not to be used to deny one's right to vote; and public officials or private individuals who attempt to intimidate, threaten, coerce, or deny persons the right to vote are subject to criminal penalties.

Educational opportunities and job training had been opened and expanded for blacks, but the economic situation did not improve as they still faced widespread unemployment and low salaries. President Johnson's War on Poverty and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission were intended to help the blacks in their quest for better job opportunities and to improve their economic standards, but even today the highest unemployment rate is found among the blacks.

The terrible riots that took place during the mid-1960s were revolts against a system that would not allow black people an opportunity to work and to live in anything but the most degrading circumstances, to be flagrantly discriminated against, to be shot, beaten, and murdered by police officers, to be intimidated and threatened, and to be forced to live in inadequate, overcrowded ghetto housing. The riots of 1964-1968, in which thousands were killed led to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1968, but not without long delays and second thoughts on the part of the legislators.

Changes in all walks of life were taking place during this period of time, and especially noteworthy is the advance of the black man in the political arena. In 1962, Edward W. Brooke won the highest state elective office ever held by a black, when he was elected Attorney General of Massachusetts, Robert C. Weaver was appointed as Secretary of the Department of Housing and Urban Development in 1966, Thurgood Marshall became the first black Supreme Court Justice, and two large cities elected black mayors in 1967, Carl Stokes in Cleveland and Richard Hatcher in Gary. President Johnson appointed Walter Washington as Commissioner of the District of Columbia, and Mrs. Patricia Harris became the first black woman ambassador when she was appointed ambassador to Luxembourg. Mississippi, Virginia, and Louisiana elected blacks to the state legislatures, and Alabama elected a black sheriff in Macon County.

The Civil Rights Act of 1968 had first been introduced in 1966 and again in 1967, but there was a "backlash" effect from the racial problems, and people were tiring of the seemingly insoluble social problems. In 1968, the act was once again about to die when Martin Luther King, Jr. was shot, and, as the Kennedy assassination had affected the passage of the first civil rights act, the murder of King led to the passage of the 1968 Civil Rights Act shortly after his death.[5] A summary of selected parts of that act follows.

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[5]Richard Bardolph, *The Civil Rights Record* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1970), p. 425.

TITLE VIII: FAIR HOUSING. This title states that it is the policy of the United States to provide for fair housing, and makes it illegal to refuse to rent or sell a dwelling to any person because of race, color, religion, or national origin; to print or publish any notice or advertisement that indicates preference, limitation, or discrimination; to refuse inspection, sale or rental because of race, color, religion, or national origin; to profit because of discriminatory practices in real estate; or to discriminate in the financing of housing.

The main emphasis of this bill provided for open housing, but because of King's death, anger and rage showed itself in rioting that took place all across the United States. The civil rights groups became more militant, and they urged blacks to build up their power through cooperation within black communities and to utilize political power to determine their own destiny. This Black Power movement contributed to the rise of the concept of self-respect, the "black is beautiful" slogan, Afro hair styles, and soul food and music.

The year 1969 saw a new approach to the civil rights movement. James Forman drafted the Black Manifesto, which was a plan calling for "reparations" for the injustices that blacks had suffered at the hands of Christians and Jews. The manifesto commanded various religious bodies to hand over the sum of one-half billion dollars, which was later raised to three billion dollars. The money was to be spent for a land bank so that blacks could buy land, establish printing companies, media networks, training centers, welfare recipient aid, and for a black university. Many felt that the Black Manifesto increased the growing alienation between whites and blacks rather than moving the whites toward an understanding of the problems of the long deprivations suffered by blacks in America.

PRESENT DIRECTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Just as the reflections of the past concerning the black American way of life have shown change, a view toward the future should continue to imply change, carrying forward the thrust toward equality of opportunity. This movement has been energized, and it is reasonable to assume that changes will continue to be required in the many different aspects of economic, political, social, and educational settings.

The Courts Point the Way

The years following the passage of the Civil Rights Acts have seen a variety of court decisions that affect all citizens of the United States either directly or indirectly. Many of the decisions handed down during the last half of the 1960s concerned educational institutions. In 1967, the *Hobson v. Hansen* case was perhaps the most far-reaching decision concerning de facto segregation to be acted on by a federal court up to that time. In Washington, D. C., the United States district court ruled that unequal educational opportunity of poor white and black children was just as unlawful as segregation by race. Judge J. Skelly Wright declared that the neighborhood school policy effectively segregated the black and poor white children from more affluent white children, and since the aptitude tests used to assign children to various tracks in the school organization were standardized primarily on white middle class children, this track assignment procedure gave these pupils little chance to escape from the lower tracks.

Free-choice plans were instituted in some states which allowed children to select the schools of their choice, but this did not overcome the imbalance. In 1968 the Supreme Court ruled that this was not adequate action for integration because too few blacks chose white schools and no whites chose black schools.

State courts were affirming the constitutionality of state laws requiring racial balance when there was no intention of discrimination, even though this meant redrawing school boundaries (*Tometz v. Board of Education of Waukegan*, Illinois, 1968). Berkeley, California, which bused thousands of children in 1968, was the first densely populated area to bus students to achieve racial balance. Chicago started busing black children on a small scale to promote integration. Federal regulations required that all school districts take positive steps toward desegregation in order to qualify for federal funds in the 1969-70 school year.

The Supreme Court upheld a federal district court decision that specified desegregation of teachers according to a mathematical ratio in *U. S. v. Montgomery County School Board* (Alabama, 1969). In another 1969 ruling, *Alexander v. Holmes County Board of Education* (Mississippi), the Supreme Court denied an extension of time for desegregation even though President Nixon had issued a statement that implied the deadline for desegregation compliance would be extended. Chief Justice Warren

Burger's court ordered immediate desegregation, and the "all deliberate speed" was no longer constitutionally permissible. The Holmes County decision was claimed by many to be the end of the repeated delays granted to schools for complying with the 1955 Brown ruling and to be the real beginning of desegregated schools. De facto segregation suits were being brought by the government in 1970, against schools in Chicago, Tulsa, East St. Louis, Indianapolis, Waterbury, Connecticut, and Madison County, Illinois.[6]

In April 1971, Chief Justice Burger, in *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* (North Carolina), specifically upheld busing, racial quotas, pairing or grouping of schools, and juggling of boundary lines, as well as other devices used to integrate schools. This decision has been very controversial and has led to some interesting results over busing and racial quotas. The racial quota was questioned in the courts by Allan Bakke, who was denied admission to a California medical school because he was white and the only space available was reserved for black applicants.

A privately owned recreation center near Little Rock, Arkansas, operated a snack bar that was run for profit, and served food to interstate travelers, food that had been brought in by interstate commerce. The *Daniel and Kyles v. Paul* (1969) decision found that the center was a public accommodation and could not exclude people on the basis of race.

Two landmark decisions by the United States Supreme Court regarding fair housing were handed down in 1967 and 1968. The first, *Reitman v. Mulkey*, concerned a black couple trying to rent an apartment who were excluded because of race. This was found by the court to be a denial of equal protection of the laws. The *Reitman* decision overturned a California state constitutional provision. More far-reaching was a decision the following year, *Jones v. Mayer*, concerning a black couple who had been denied the opportunity to purchase an expensive house in St. Louis. In this decision the Court applied the provisions of the Thirteenth Amendment and included "those fundamental rights which are the essence of civil freedom, namely, the same right . . . . to inherit, purchase, lease, sell, and convey property, as is enjoyed by white citizens . . . ."[7]

We have come now to a kind of testing. We must not fail. Let us close the springs of racial poison. Let us pray for wise and understanding hearts. Let us lay aside irrelevant differences and make our nation whole.

President L. B. Johnson

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[6]Bardolph, p. 472.

[7]Bardolph, p. 532.

The court cases concerning racial discrimination in many areas of life have been very abundant in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s, and are sure to continue as long as discrimination is practiced in the United States. As decisions are handed down by the courts, other social problems arise, and as these are brought to the courts, changes are made, and other problems surface. As the courts found that blacks were being discriminated against in equal educational opportunity, other areas of daily life discriminations were brought to the courts. Some of these include:

Lucy v. Adams. Autherine Lucy was barred from the University of Alabama because of race.

Holmes v. City of Atlanta. Dr. George Simkins, a black dentist, was denied access to a North Carolina municipal golf course.

Derington v. Plummer. Blacks were denied service in a county courthouse restaurant.

Browder v. Gayle. Black citizens protested the segregated public transportation system of Montgomery.

Tonkins v. City of Greensboro. Public swimming pool segregation.

Shuttlesworth v. Gaylord. Segregated parks and recreational facilities.

Simkins v. Moses Cone Memorial Hospital. Segregated hospital facilities for practicing doctors and dentists.

Todd v. Joint Apprenticeship Committee of Steel Workers of Chicago. Exclusion from membership and training in the iron workers' union.

Bell v. Georgia Dental Association. Denial of state dental association membership.

NAACP v. Alabama. Non-employment of NAACP members.

Whitus v. Georgia. Keeping blacks off jury lists.

These cases, included only to illustrate some of the areas of discrimination, are only a drop in the flood of litigation that occurred from the time of the Brown decision of 1954 through the 1960s.

The era of the 1970s has been a less violent period, but still a very emotionally packed time of social problems relating to racial discrimination and civil rights activities. Indianapolis Public Schools were found guilty of *de jure* school segregation in a case originally filed in 1968 and determined in 1971. The decision was appealed, and in 1973, Judge Dillon ordered that a metropolitan plan of school desegregation be developed, including the transporting of black pupils to suburban schools. Delays were granted and further litigation came about because of the intense emotional reactions on the part of the affected publics. A Supreme Court decision is still pending, ten years after the original suit was filed.

The *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* and *Davis v. Board of School Commissioners of Mobile*, both 1971 decisions, marked the merging of constitutional rights and court-ordered remedies in school desegregation which attempted to establish some guidelines for school authorities and district courts in future desegregation plans. In *Bradley v. School Board of Richmond* (1973), and *Milliken v. Bradley* (1974), metropolitan desegregation was rejected despite findings that such plans were the only effective means for eliminating state-imposed segregation. The orders directing a merger of school districts or the crossing of school district lines would only be permitted where it was established that the purpose of the school district lines being drawn was for the separation of races.[8]

In trying to comply with the 1974 *Milliken v. Bradley* decision, the Michigan Board of Education submitted several plans which were not approved, but during the 1976-1977 term, the Supreme Court concluded that the district court has the authority to order remedial and compensatory educational programs to remedy the effects of past discrimination.[9] This undoubtedly will lead to further litigation as compliance is attempted.

In April, 1976, the U. S. Supreme Court rendered a decision concerning public housing that could have quite an impact on education. The *Hills v. Gautreaux* decision stated that the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development violated the Constitution and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 because of the placement of public housing in Chicago. By placing most of the 10,000 public housing units within the ghetto area of Chicago, the Department indirectly forced blacks to stay in the ghetto, thus perpetuating segregation. This decision seems to be in opposition

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[8]Julius L. Chambers, "Implementing the Promise of Brown," *The Educational Forum*, Kappa Delta Pi, XLI, (May, 1977), 422-423.

[9]Thomas J. Flygare, "Federal Desegregation Decrees and Compensatory Education," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 59, No. 4 (December, 1977).

to the 1974 *Milliken* decision on metropolitan desegregation. The court saw a difference because the U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development was a national governmental agency that should extend beyond city boundaries.[10]

The *Brinkman v. Gilligan* decision of 1976 required specific percentages of blacks and whites in each of the system's schools, based on the total enrollment of the Dayton (Ohio) school system. In an 8-0 decision, the Supreme Court

> . . . . held that Dayton's desegregation plan was not supported by any evidence of a systemwide equal protection clause violation . . . . [Justice] Rehnquist pointed out that the existence of predominantly white and predominantly black schools in a system does not alone constitute an equal protection clause violation . . . . Two days after the Dayton case was decided, the High Court overturned a systemwide student assignment plan that had been ordered by a district court in Omaha [*School District of Omaha v. United States*, 1977] . . . . The High Court also overturned a district court in Wisconsin which, after finding that the Milwaukee School Board had committed unconstitutional acts, appointed a "special master" to develop a plan for the desegregation of the Milwaukee Public School System." [*Brennan v. Armstrong*, 1977][11]

The Austin, Texas, and Indianapolis, Indiana, busing requirements were nullified by the Supreme Court when noneducation cases were cited as a basis for the decision. In *Washington v. Davis*, the Supreme Court's decision (June, 1976) found that a written test of verbal skills given to Washington, D. C., job applicants for police officers was not discriminatory because the city did not intend to discriminate. This decision shows that it is the *intent* of the action, not the *effect*, on which the court's decisions must be based. The January, 1977, decision of the Supreme Court dealt with a housing development in a Chicago suburb, in which Justice Powell stated that the *intentions* were for the purpose of racial discrimination (*Village of Arlington Heights v. Metropolitan Housing Development Corporation*).[12]

Just where does a school district stand in regard to desegregation and busing? It would seem that the above cases should give an indication of what is taking place, but the Supreme Court refused to overturn a

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[10]Robert L. Crowson, "Hills v. Gautreaux: Implications for Education," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, No. 7 (March, 1977), 550-551.

[11]Thomas J. Flygare, "Rehnquist's Dayton Decision and Systemwide Desegregation Plans," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 59, No. 2 (October, 1977).

[12]Thomas J. Flygare, "Austin and Indianapolis: A New Approach to Desegregation?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, No. 9 (May, 1977), 709-710.

lower court decision which required Louisville, Kentucky, to meet specific desegregation regulations based on percentages to be accomplished by busing to improve racial balance.[13]

In *Pasadena v. Spangler*, the 1976 ruling by the Supreme Court stated that once a school district had made the changes to overcome racial segregation, it did not have to adjust pupil attendance annually to maintain racial balance.[14]

Recent years have seen the courts become more and more involved in desegregation and the implementation of policies that were to overcome racial imbalance and to assure the civil rights of all United States citizens. Since the *Brown* decision in 1954, different areas of the country have been in the news as resistance to desegregation has come into focus. Much of this resistance has been overlooked, and it has taken individual and collective effort to bring these to light and to try to overcome the infringements on equal rights. This has, many times, led to the courts by way of a long, rocky, hilly, slippery path. The delays have been many, and the November, 1977, issue of *Phi Delta Kappan*, "The Editor's Page" begins with these words:

> The South abandoned "massive resistance" to court-ordered desegregation years ago, but in cities of the North the game goes on with maddening repetition and maximum delay.[15]

The editor then cites several instances of the delays to which he was referring--Wilmington, Delaware, and ten adjoining suburban school districts were granted postponements for the *fifth* time by a federal district court, concerning the implementation of an interdistrict busing plan; Columbus, Ohio submitted a *third* proposal for desegregation; Cleveland, Ohio desegregation plans have been held up; Dayton, Ohio's year-old busing plan was to be challenged; Indianapolis is waiting to see if the creation of a metropolitan government is found, by the U. S. Supreme Court, to have been created *for* the *intention* of discrimination (this court battle began in 1968); Rockville Centre, New York, and Los Angeles, both mandated to desegregate the schools, have had their plans delayed, and Rockville Centre has been granted a delay until September, 1980.[16]

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[13]Ibid.

[14]Newsnotes, "More Court Rulings in Kentucky Desegregation," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 59, No. 3 (November, 1977), 219-220.

[15]The Editor's Page, "Maddening Delays, But Some Desegregation Progress," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 59, No. 3 (November, 1977), 153.

[16]Ibid.

The bright spots in the desegregation picture are pointed out as being: Louisville, Kentucky, where countywide busing led to violence three years ago, but the opening of school in 1977 saw no serious incidents related to busing; Minneapolis, where desegregation took place in stages beginning in 1973, and only two schools failed to meet state guidelines for racial balance by 1976; Boston which had for four years been a hotbed of violence over forced busing but has made headway even though student transfer assignments were rescinded by a federal judge in order to restore calm, orderly desegregation; and Dallas, which seems to be setting an example that other cities might wish to follow.[17]

The decisions mentioned here are really only a small handful that have come before the courts, but these should help one to see the changes that have taken place. The South fought desegregation in bitter, violent battles while the Northern states sat back feeling that they were certainly in compliance with the *Brown* decision. The emphasis was placed on the South because it was very openly opposed to integration, but as the South began complying with the desegregation orders, the focus turned to the North. Northerners found, much to the dismay of many, that segregation was indeed very prevalent in their part of the United States. Some northern areas of the United States are still fighting desegregation, hoping to appease the courts, the blacks, and other minorities, but nevertheless continuing to withhold certain people's civil rights.

Opinions Expressed by Contemporary Writers

Today one can hardly pick up a newspaper or magazine and not find at least one article dealing with activities that deprive some group of their civil rights. The opinions included in this section help point out some of the differences found in the decade of the 1970s.

According to Young and Bress, most Americans understood the *Brown* decision of equal educational opportunity to mean the provision of comparable facilities, teachers, and materials in unitary systems, but the perception of the problem changed significantly when the 1966 Coleman Report revealed that most Northern school children were in racially unbalanced schools. The Southern *de jure* meaning of segregation was extended to include Northern *de facto* imbalance. This *de facto* imbalance was based on totally different factors, which included different socio-economic levels as well as large numbers of one race within different neighborhoods. The authors believe that the Coleman Report:

> . . . . deliberately shifted the meaning of the phrase "equality of educational opportunity" from school inputs (the economic resources going into a school) to focus on school outputs or student achievement (the "results" of

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[17]Ibid.

> "opportunity"). Thus equal educational results in terms of group averages of achievement for all races, ethnic groups, and classes . . . . This shift in goals led directly to the massive busing programs undertaken in our major cities.[18]

Jeffrey Leech surveyed longitudinal studies on compulsory integration effects and, in 1973, warned:

> The federal judiciary should examine its recent push toward massive busing in light of more current sociological evidence which indicates that busing to achieve integration may in fact produce no educational gains, may hinder the psychological development of black children, and may intensify racial misunderstanding.[19]

Perhaps the recent Supreme Court rulings nullifying lower court busing orders, or delaying implementation, is a step in the direction of Leech's warning based on the effects of compulsory integration that he found in the longitudinal studies.

David Cohen and Janet Weiss maintain that the segregation problem became less clear because social reality changed. Some of the changes were unrelated to desegregation, and included social and political trends. Desegregation turned out to be much more complex than had been expected. Suits arose to include civil rights and equal opportunity for many diverse reasons, i. e., arm bands, flag salutes, dress, hair length, sex, prayer, and many more. We find that in trying to solve one social problem, the way the problem is perceived changes. What once seemed an easy solution has turned out to be vastly different and contradictory viewed in today's society as contrasted with 1954 or even 1970. As a social problem matures, the angles of vision multiply.[20]

There have, indeed, been many changes in society and in societal expectations. One of these changes is a dramatic change in black attitudes and in the direction of their civil rights activities and emphasis. As an economic outgrowth of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, Operation Breadbasket came into existence, and in December, 1971, from Operation Breadbasket sprang the People United to Save Humanity (PUSH). On Martin Luther King's birthday, January 15, in 1975, Jesse Jackson had organized a demonstration that was to march seven times around the White House to show concern for full employment. The crowd was unruly

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[18]Biloine Whiting Young and Grace Billings Bress, "A New Educational Decision: Is Detroit the End of the School Bus Line?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, 56, No. 8 (April, 1975), 515-517.

[19]Jeffrey J. Leech, "Busing as a Judicial Remedy: A Socio-Legal Reappraisal," *Indiana Law Review*, May, 1973, pp. 710-712.

[20]David K. Cohen and Janet A. Weiss, "Social Science and Social Policy: Schools and Race," *The Educational Forum*, Kappa Delta Pi, XLI, No. 4 (May, 1977), 395-398.

and lacked the discipline that Jackson had learned well in the jails of the South in the 1960s. Jackson saw the crowd of youthful demonstrators who were drunk, stoned, red-eyed, and out of control, and he called off the march after two trips around the White House. Out of this shocking experience came EXCEL, the PUSH for Excellence in Education. Jackson aimed directly at the "politics of decadence," the evils of alcohol, drugs, and the lack of discipline that have prevented blacks from keeping pressure for change on white society. "The door of opportunity is open for our people, but they are too drunk, too unconscious to walk through the door."[21] He and PUSH hope for economic and spiritual regeneration, and discipline to heal black society's wounds.

> Above all else, he's pushing the need to care, to take pride to love. Children, he says, stay off the streets, discipline yourself . . . . strive to better yourself, because you're the only one who can do it. Mothers and fathers, support your child's teachers and principals; raise babies, don't just make them; come to school to get your child's report cards; teach your child respect . . . . But if you don't pay the taxes, there won't be schools . . . . The teacher works for you, not for the union or the school board. The school system is ours. We must make it work from the bottom up.[22]

PUSH for Excellence is becoming a national endeavor which hopes to improve conditions in big-city public schools and in inner-city neighborhoods. The central concept is for "total involvement" with the intent of bringing together the efforts of parents and other community residents, teachers, preachers and other community leaders, principals, other school administrators, and pupils in a common cause.[23]

Joe Howell, PUSH national education coordinator, believes that the principles that apply to athletic victory also apply to school work, and Jesse Jackson brought this idea to 2,000 Los Angeles inner-city school students in these words:

> We know why we can't read and we know why we can't write. It's for one of two reasons. Either we can't read because we're retarded or because we don't practice. And we're not

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[21]Robert W. Cole, "Black Moses: Jesse Jackson's PUSH for Excellence," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, No. 5 (January, 1977), 378-382.

[22]Ibid.

[23]Eugene E. Eubanks and Daniel U. Levine, "The PUSH Program for Excellence in Big-City Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, No. 5 (January, 1977), 383-388.

retarded. We just don't practice. Basically, we do well what we do most--and that's run a football, shoot a basketball, and shake our butts.[24]

Concluding Comments

The PUSH for Excellence program may well be a step forward in the black quest for civil rights. Through its attempts to join community, parents, school, and individuals into a cohesive group working toward this goal, a better learning and living environment may well be the outcome.

The courts have recently concluded that the district court does have the authority to order remedial and compensatory educational programs. This decision may encourage the federal courts to avoid the expensive and unpopular student reassignments and busing requirements and, instead, to utilize the option of compensatory education offerings to help the educationally and culturally different students, and to help the local school districts to implement such a program. Perhaps some federal funds may be forthcoming if increasing pressure is present as court-ordered compensatory education plans come into being.[25]

Black Americans have made tremendous gains in the last twenty-five years in all areas of life, but still have a long way to go. Presently, forty percent of black youth are unemployed, blacks are still behind in average income, the welfare rolls show many more blacks than the population percentages should indicate, and ghetto areas are still prevalent in American cities.

The arena of law and politics has shown blacks to be competent judges, lawyers, legislators and public officials. In 1977, the United States records show there were 161 black mayors, the number of which had grown from 31 in 1972.[26] These numbers should continue to increase as black Americans find interest and success in gaining public office in all levels and areas of government. The opportunity is there if black youth has the interest in pursuing such careers.

The courts have led to tremendous gains in equality of opportunity, and even though there seems to be much confusion in some of the rulings handed down by the courts, the decisions are ultimately heading Americans in the direction "that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these, are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness."[27]

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[24]Cole, p. 379.

[25]Thomas J. Flygare, "Federal Desegregation Decrees and Compensatory Education," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 59, No. 4 (December, 1977), 266.

[26]Ellison, p. 254-255.

[27]Bardolph, p. 5.

ACTIVITIES AND QUESTIONS

1. Read current magazine articles pertaining to civil rights. Write a summary of the article and your reactions to it.

2. Interview a local NAACP leader to find out what is currently happening in the community. What activities are underway? When and where is the next meeting? Perhaps you might attend the next NAACP meeting and report to the class any interesting events that you observed.

3. How many blacks are currently serving in Congress? Choose one and write a report on that person, e.g., background information, family, education, previous occupation, etc.

4. Read poetry by black poets and choose one you especially like. Write why you liked it.

5. Choose a famous performer of today. Find out as much as possible about that person and write an illustrated story about him/her.

6. Watch for articles in the newspapers about black civil rights (rallies, meetings, court decisions, etc.) and use the articles for class discussions. Compile a class scrapbook of articles and written reports.

7. Suppose you were a black person living in the United States in 1850. Write a story of your daily life and the problems and difficulties you encounter. Contrast that life with one lived during the 1950s.

8. Create a series of pictures, like a comic strip, showing the Underground Railway and the activities that were taking place during this period of time.

9. Trace the history of the black race by creating a booklet, utilizing your own ideas for headlines, newspaper articles, drawings, poems, quotations, etc. You might begin with the slaves on board ship being brought to the United States.

10. Choose a black from two or three of the areas of music, art, sports, entertainment, education, literature, politics, and religion. Compare and contrast their backgrounds, lifestyles, and the problems they encountered, with that of whites who were in the same field.

11. What is the Spingarn Medal?

12. Great Britain ordered the abolition of slavery throughout its colonies in 1833. The first Latin-American country, the United Provinces of Central America, freed its slaves in 1824. Mexico emancipated slaves in 1829. Why do you think the United States of America waited until 1863 to emancipate its slaves? Why has it taken so long for blacks in America to gain their civil rights?

13. Read about the Reconstruction era. Prepare a report on what was accomplished during this period of time.

14. The *Brown v. Board of Education* court decision was only pertaining to education. Why is it looked on as such a landmark case?

15. The 1950s and 1960s were interesting years with lots of activity relative to black civil rights movements. What part did the following people play during this turbulent time period?

    Roy Wilkins
    Whitney Young, Jr.
    Martin Luther King, Jr.
    James Farmer
    Dick Gregory
    A. Philip Randolph
    Mahalia Jackson
    James Baldwin

16. Find out how the black Muslims, Elijah Muhammad, and Malcolm X felt about the civil rights movement. Tell each of their stories about how and what the blacks should have done during the 1960s.

17. What actions should have been taken by the three branches of the government that would have been of most benefit for black Americans in 1990?

18. Read everything you can find about Jackie Robinson. Report to the class who he was, what he did, and what part he played in forging the way for the civil rights of blacks.

19. The major awards, Nobel Peace Prize and the Pulitzer Prize, are given for what reasons? Name the blacks who have received these awards and why they received the award.

20. What is apartheid?

21. What proportion of the world's blacks is found in the United States?

22. What is the percentage of blacks in the United States?

23. What is the difference between *de facto* and *de jure* segregation?

24. What do you think is the major problem facing black Americans today? Why?

25. People and things to find out about:

    Peter Salem
    Gwendolyn Brooks
    Ralph Bunche
    Oscar DePriest

Salem Poor
Toussiant L'Ouverture
Samuel Cornish
William Lloyd Garrison
Robert C. Weaver
John H. Johnson
Carl T. Rowan
Matthew Henson
Jim Crow
Uncle Tom

26. What is the Ku Klux Klan? What are its goals? Would you join? Why? Why not?

27. Make a bulletin board display of important American black events and people.

28. Make a time-line of black American history. See the Associated Press Almanac on black Americans for a brief overview.

29. On an outline map of Africa outline the early African civilizations, such as Dahomey, Mossi, Songhai, Mali. Good resources are *West Africa* by Richard Adloff, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964, and *The Emergent Continent* by Eric Halladay, St. Martins Press, 1972. See also 1973 Year Book, The World Book, pp. 94-137.

30. On an outline map of Africa, write the name of current African states and the date of independence. Color code the previous territorial control, i.e., German, French, English, etc.

31. Read the first chapter of *Death At An Early Age* and discuss orally.

32. Develop a skit outside the classroom from *To Kill a Mockingbird* and act it out in class. See pp. 257-259.

33. Using the names of famous black Americans, develop a crossword puzzle.

34. Invite a resource person to play African music.

35. Visit an art museum to view African art.

36. Make a bulletin board display of famous black Americans.

37. Make a mural of the major events in the black people's struggle for freedom.

38. Is *Roots* an accurate portrayal of black history?

FILMS

The Prejudice Film	Avanti: Momed	28½ min.	color
I'm A Man	Mght: Mght	20 min.	color
Ancient Africans	Iff: Iff	27 min.	color
Police Community Relations	Holt: Holt	19 min.	b/w
Where Is Prejudice Parts I & II	Net: IU	56 min.	b/w
Why Do People Misunderstand Each Other	Net: IU	30 min.	b/w
South Africa	ABCTV: Mght	27 min.	color
People of the Congo	EBEC: EBEC	10 min.	b/w
Old Africa & the New Ethiopia and Botswana	ABC: Mght	17 min.	color
Kenya: The Multi-Racial Experiment	ABCTV: Mght	19 min.	color
Boundary Lines	Iff: Iff	10 min.	color
History of the Negro In America	Niagra: Mght	20 min.	b/w
Part I 1619-1860		20 min.	b/w
Part II 1861-1879		21 min.	b/w
Part III 1877-Today			
Black and White: Uptight	Avanti: BFA	35 min.	color
Is It Always Right to Be Right	Bosust: Bosust	8 min.	color
The High Wall	ADL: Mght	30 min.	b/w
Frederick Douglass	NBC: R. Saudek	48 min.	b/w

Vinie Burrows in Walk
Together Children-
The Black Scene in
Prose, Poetry, &
Song (Cassette)
Spoken Arts

Minorities: What's A Minority?	Coronet	13½ min.	color
Black Men and Iron Horse	Sterling	18 min.	color
Adventures in Negro History Filmstrip & phonodisc 3 filmstrips, 3 records	Pepsi Cola Co.		
Lonnie's Day	Coronet	13½ min.	color
Negro American	Bailey	15 min.	color
Black Pioneers in American History (Cassette)	Caedmon	55 min.	

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